

How to Grade for Learning

K-12

Third
Edition

Ken O'Connor

Foreword by
Rick Stiggins

Foreword

Early in our daughter Krissy's third-grade school year, she arrived home after school with a paper in her hand and a tear in her eye. She was carrying a "story" she had written. Her assignment was to write about something or someone that she cared about. She gave it to her mom and me with obvious trepidation.

As we read, we found the touching tale of the kitten named Kelly who came to be a part of our family briefly and then had to go home to the farm because of allergies and because she was just too aggressive. Krissy had wanted a kitten so badly and was so sad about losing her special new friend. The story clearly reflected the work of an emergent writer. As unsophisticated as it was, it captured the emotions of the event. It was quite touching. Krissy's six or seven sentences filled about two-thirds of the sheet of paper. In the space below the story at the bottom of the sheet, there appeared a very big, very red F. So naturally, my wife and I asked why Krissy had been assigned a failing grade.

Her reply triggered some very strong emotions within both of us. Krissy said sadly, "The teacher told us that we were to fill the page, and I didn't do that. And so she said I didn't follow directions and I failed. I don't think I'll ever be a good writer anyway . . ." As our disappointed little writer walked off, my wife and I could only shake our heads in wonder and fury.

We both know and understand that all classroom teachers face immense classroom assessment, record-keeping, and communication challenges. We empathized. First, they must establish rigorous but realistic achievement expectations for each student. Then, they must provide opportunities for students to learn to meet those expectations. Next, they must transform those achievement targets into high-quality assessments to determine the level of student success. Finally, teachers must transform assessment results into accurate information for those who need access to it and communicate that information in a complete, timely, and understandable form to those users.

Each of these steps can be carried out using either sound or unsound practices. If teachers use sound practices, students can prosper. If they use unsound practices, students suffer the consequences. In other words, if achievement expectations are inappropriate (e.g., too high or too low) for a student, the learning environment will be counterproductive. If assessments are of poor quality, inaccurate information and poor instructional decisions will follow.

When communication procedures fail, students will have great difficulty succeeding academically.

Krissy's teacher made it partway through this gauntlet of challenges. She wanted her students to write well—an important achievement target. She obviously provided her students with opportunities to write because Krissy had written her story. The assessment could have been of high quality because she relied on a direct performance assessment of writing proficiency. But from here on, the teaching, assessment, and communication processes clearly broke down.

In this book, Ken O'Connor gives voice to many of the things that went wrong in this case. Although he centers on the process of communicating about student achievement through the use of report card grades, Ken puts the grading process into a larger context. He gives attention to each of the other keys to success. He argues convincingly for an open and honest educational system—a system in which there are no surprises and no excuses. He advocates the careful articulation of appropriate achievement expectations and the unconditional sharing of those targets with students and their families. He demands rigorous achievement standards and accurate ongoing classroom assessments of student success. Finally, Ken spells out concrete procedures for transforming assessment results into grades that communicate in a timely and understandable way.

The practical guidelines offered in this book help teachers design and conduct grading practices that help students feel in control of their own academic success. These guidelines can keep students from feeling that sense of hopelessness that Krissy felt. Every teacher's goal must be to implement grading practices that lead students to feel that they can succeed if they try.

—Rick Stiggins
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"If I were asked to enumerate ten educational stupidities, the giving of grades would be at the top of the list."—DeZouche (1945, p. 339)

"Schools use grades because it's one of those things somebody once decided on and now everybody just goes along with it."—Littky (2004, p. 154)

"Grading and reporting student achievement is a caring, sensitive process that requires teachers' professional judgment."—Cooper (2007, p. 240)

"Teachers are often very sensitive about their grading practices—they regard them as sacred ground."—Brown (2004, p. 29)

"Of all the things we do as teachers, few have the potential for creating more problems and miscommunication than grading."—Stiggins et al. (2004, p. 304)

"In a perfect world there would be no grades—at least as we know them."—Brookhart (2004, p. 2)

Introduction

"Official guidelines on grading are often vague, nonexistent or ignored."—Mathews (2005c, p. A10)

"Schools have not changed [from] ineffective and counterproductive grading practices."—Reeves (2007, p. 231)

"Students . . . see their schoolwork as a game they play for grades."—Winger (2005, p. 62)

"Grades are momentary inferences at best."—Wormeli (2006, p. 11)

"Informative assessment really isn't about the grade book."—Tomlinson (2007/2008, p. 10)

"A profound cultural transformation [would be] classrooms in which both students and teachers focus on learning, not grades."—Shepard (2005, p. 70)

WHAT GRADING TERMINOLOGY IS NEEDED?

Reflecting on . . . Quotes

Ask yourself the following questions:

- What is your reaction to the titles and quotes about grades on page 1?
- What do they say about grading?
- How do you think your colleagues, students, parents, and community would react to them?

As the quotes about grading on the previous page show, grading raises many concerns. One communication concern is grading terminology. The term *grading* carries different meanings for different people, while other words, such as *marking* and *scoring*, may sometimes mean grading, too. As McTighe and Ferrara (1995) state, "Terms [are] frequently used interchangeably, although they should have distinct meanings" (p. 11). Discussion of any issue or principle must proceed from a clear understanding of the meaning of the terms being used. In support of this goal, a glossary is provided at the end of the book. At this point, readers need a shared understanding of three critical terms: *grades* (or *grading*), *marks* (or *marking*), and *scores* (or *scoring*). These terms are often used almost interchangeably, although *grading* is used more frequently in the United States and *marking* more commonly in Canada, while *scoring* is most commonly associated with large-scale external assessment.

Reflecting on . . . Terminology

Ask yourself the following questions:

- What do you understand by the terms *grades* and *grading*?
- What do you understand by the terms *marks* and *marking*?
- What do you understand by the terms *scores* and *scoring*?
- Are they the same? Are they different? How?

The main problem is that these terms, especially *grades* and *grading*, are often used with two meanings. For careful analysis, it is critical to have a clear meaning for each term. In this book, *grade(s)/grading*, *mark(s)/marking*, and *score(s)/scoring* are used as follows:

Grade(s) or grading—The number or letter reported at the end of a period of time as a summary statement of student performance

Mark(s) or marking and score(s) or scoring—The number, letter, or words placed on any single student assessment (test, performance task, etc.)

Airasian (1994) uses *grading* to mean "making a judgment about the quality of a pupil's performance, whether it is performance on a single assessment or performance across many assessments" (p. 281). In most writings, the context

makes clear which of these two meanings is intended. However, this is not always the case, and when the meaning is not clear, confusion and lack of clarity in analysis and discussion requires that the two activities be distinguished by using separate terms.

Anderson and Wendel (1988) define *marks* and *grades* oppositely to the definitions used here. They agree, though, that defining terms is essential so that “everyone operates under the same assumptions and knows exactly what meanings underlie those assumptions” (pp. 36–37).

Another definition is provided by Paul Dressel (as cited in Kohn, 1993b):

A grade can be regarded only as an inadequate report of an inaccurate judgment by a biased and variable judge of the extent to which a student has attained an undefined level of mastery of an unknown proportion of an indefinite amount of material. (p. 201)

WHAT IS THE CONTEXT OF GRADING?

The role of schools has changed. . . . Our assessment practices historically have been designed to promote accountability by separating the successful from the unsuccessful learners and highlighting their differences. However, given the new mission of ensuring universal competence, assessments now must support the learning of all students so that all can succeed at meeting standards. The result must be balanced assessment systems and a fundamental rethinking of the dynamics of assessment in effective schools. (Stiggins, 2006, p. 3)

This quote from Rick Stiggins eloquently summarizes the shift in thinking about assessment that has occurred since the 1980s and shows that a different understanding has developed about the purpose of assessment. This change has led to the understanding that it is essential to make clear distinctions between assessment *for* learning and assessment *of* learning (Stiggins, Arter, Chappuis, & Chappuis, 2004) and that schools and districts must ensure a balance between both purposes in the assessments used by teachers. This distinction has been taken a step further by Lorna Earl and Steven Katz (2006) in the document they wrote for the Manitoba Ministry of Education, Citizenship and Youth titled *Rethinking Classroom Assessment*, where they make distinctions between assessment *for*, *of*, and *as* learning. In this view of the purposes of assessment, assessment *for* learning has been split into two:

1. Assessment *for* learning—Basically done by others who provide students with descriptive feedback to move their learning forward
2. Assessment *as* learning—basically done by the students themselves through reflection, self-assessment, and goal setting

CONSTRUCTIVIST THEORIES OF LEARNING

Another important understanding has been the development of constructivist theories of learning. Constructivism recognizes that learning is a process in

which the learner builds personal meaning by adding new understanding to old on the basis of each new experience. This means that "learning is not linear. . . . Instead, learning occurs at a very uneven pace and proceeds in many different directions at once" (Burke, 1993, p. xiv).

Individuals experience meaningful learning when they have the opportunity to process information and relate it to their own experiences. This has significant implications for how the teaching/learning process takes place in schools.

Learners should be able to construct meaning for themselves, reflect on the significance of the meaning, and self-assess to determine their own strengths and weaknesses. Integrated curricula, cooperative learning, problem-based learning, and whole language are just a few examples of curricula that help students construct knowledge for themselves. (Burke, 1993, p. xiv)

Each of these approaches requires more complex assessment than traditional approaches, which emphasize simple scoring of answers or behaviors as right or wrong. More varied approaches to assessment imply that teachers will not always have neat numbers that can be "crunched" and converted into grades. Grading, therefore, also becomes a more complex activity. Teachers need to consider carefully how they will incorporate data from a broader array of assessments into the determination of their students' grades. Guidelines presented in this book help teachers do this because they are designed to support varied approaches to learning and assessment and to encourage student success, however it is demonstrated.

BRAIN-BASED RESEARCH

The constructivist view of learning has been supported and expanded by what is often called "brain-based research." This research has demonstrated that the way the brain works is much more complex than theories of learning previously acknowledged. Brain research shows that the ability to learn is significantly influenced by coping with emotions and the environment, by being taught the skills of thinking, and by the encouragement of metacognition—that is, thinking about thinking.

The classroom environment that best facilitates the full development of the intelligences is sometimes called "brain compatible." For the brain to function fully, it is beneficial for the classroom to provide five elements: trust and belonging, meaningful content, enriched environment, intelligent choices, and adequate time. (Chapman, 1993, p. 9)

Assessment and grading practices need to be "brain compatible." Brain-compatible assessment results from paying attention to the same elements:

Trust and belonging occurs when students are comfortable undertaking assessment activities. They need risk-free assessments where they feel they

want to try because the marks will not “count” in grades, as it is understood that they may make mistakes on early attempts and/or take risks that may not be successful. Students need to be in a familiar environment with opportunities to practice each assessment type before the real assessment. It has been shown that unless students have had an opportunity to practice a high-stress activity in an unfamiliar environment, they do not perform at their real level of achievement. For example, it has been demonstrated that students perform better on the SAT when they do the test in their own classroom rather than in the school gym or cafeteria. Grading can be made brain-compatible by using the scores from second chance assessment and by using more recent information to determine grades (see Chapter 5).

Meaningful content and enriched environment, from an assessment point of view, mean that teachers provide assessment that promotes learning, not just assessment that is easy to score.

Intelligent choices in assessment means that teachers do not require each student to demonstrate achievement in the same way as other students; students have some choice in how they are assessed. Davies (2007a) goes as far as to suggest that “potentially every student could have a different collection of evidence because every student has taken a different learning journey towards the same standards or outcomes” (p. 49).

Adequate time refers to students’ need for time to become comfortable with approaches to instruction and assessment that are new to them. It also means that students need sufficient time to be able to demonstrate their knowledge and skills in assessment situations. Students should only be required to perform in strictly time-limited assessment situations if time is a critical element of the achievement being assessed. Reflective learners and slow writers often receive lower grades than they deserve as a result of being required to perform in inappropriately time-limited assessments (see Chapter 7).

These ideas are supported by the work of Judy Willis (2007), who is both a neurologist and a teacher. She states,

Brain-based research in learning has given educational researchers the means to translate neuroimaging data into classroom strategies that are designed to stimulate parts of the brain seen to be metabolically activated during stages of information processing, memory, and recall. And what has emerged from the neuroscience of learning over the past two decades is a body of highly suggestive evidence that

- successful strategies teach for meaning and understanding, . . .
- learning-conducive classrooms are low in threat and high in reasonable challenge, and that
- students who are actively engaged and motivated devote more brain activity (as measured by metabolic processes) to learning. [bulleted list format added] (p. 698)

“Two rules of thumb come from the field of brain research and enrichment. One is to eliminate threat, and the other is to enrich like crazy.”

—Jensen, 1998, p. 2

Each element of brain-compatible assessment requires that teachers be very flexible in their approach to assessment and grading. If teachers are more flexible, then a greater variety of information will be available to incorporate into their summary judgments. The guidelines in this book are designed to provide teachers with an approach to grading that allows for more than mere number crunching.

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES

In the past, intelligence was seen as a singular entity, relatively fixed and easily measured. Gardner (1983) demonstrated that, rather than one fixed entity, there are at least eight intelligences:

- Verbal/linguistic—Words, listening, speaking, dialogues, poems
- Visual/spatial—Images, drawings, doodles, puzzles, visualization
- Logical/mathematical—Reasoning, facts, sequencing, judging, ranking
- Musical/rhythmic—Melody, beat, rap, pacing, blues, classical, jingles
- Bodily/kinesthetic—Activity, try, do, perform, touch, feel, participate
- Interpersonal—Interact, communicate, charisma, socialize, empathize
- Intrapersonal—Self, solitude, create, brood, write, dream, set goals
- Naturalist—Nature, observe, classify, hike, climb, trees, ecosystem

Knowledge of multiple intelligences requires that teachers focus on how smart students are in different ways; the focus is no longer on “how smart” but “how one is smart.” Gardner believes that each person’s mix of intelligences produces a unique cognitive profile. Educators should ensure that children learn by building on their strengths. Teaching to or through each of the intelligences gives students whose strengths have been undervalued in schools far greater opportunity to succeed.

Understanding multiple intelligences also means that teachers use a wide variety of instructional and assessment activities. One of the best ways to acknowledge individual differences is to encourage students to develop portfolios—purposeful collections of their work—that can show strengths, weaknesses, growth, and progress over time. See Figure 0.1 for ways to use multiple intelligences in both instructional and assessment activities. This figure dramatically illustrates the links that can be made and the incredible variety of activities that are available to teachers to promote student success.

Each of these areas of understanding—constructivism, brain-based research, and multiple intelligences—has contributed to the realization that, in the past, educators have held a very narrow view of learning and knowledge and that this view now needs to be broadened dramatically. Teachers, for example, have focused most commonly on only two intelligences, verbal/linguistic and logical/mathematical, to the exclusion of the other six; students whose strengths are in the other intelligences have frequently not done well in school.

Figure 0.1 Portfolio Activities and Assessments for the Multiple Intelligences

Verbal/ Linguistic	Logical/ Mathematical	Visual/ Spatial	Bodily/ Kinesthetic
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • tape recordings of readings • reactions to guest speakers • autobiographies • reactions to films or videos • scripts for radio shows • list of books read • annotated bibliographies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • puzzles • patterns and their relationships • mathematical operations • formulas/abstract symbols • analogies • time lines • Venn diagrams • original word problems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • artwork • photographs • math manipulatives • graphic organizers • posters, charts, graphics, pictures • illustrations • sketches • props for plays • storyboards 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • field trips • role playing • learning centers • labs • sports/games • simulations • presentations • dances
Musical/ Rhythmic	Interpersonal	Intrapersonal	Naturalist
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • background music in class • songs for books, countries, people • raps, jingles, cheers, poems • musical mnemonics • choral readings • tone patterns • music and dance of different cultures • musical symbols 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • group videos, films, filmstrips • team computer programs • cooperative task trios • round robins • jigsaws • wraparounds • electronic mail • class and group discussions • group projects • group presentations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • problem-solving strategies • goal setting • reflective logs • divided journals • metacognitive reflections • independent reading time • silent reflections time • self-evaluations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • outdoor education • environmental studies • field trips • photographs of nature • research on ecosystems • debates on environmental issues • poems about nature

SOURCE: Burke, K., Fogarty, R., and Belgrad, S. (2001). *The Portfolio Connection: Student Work Linked to Standards*, 2nd Edition. Thousand Oaks: Corwin. Used with permission.

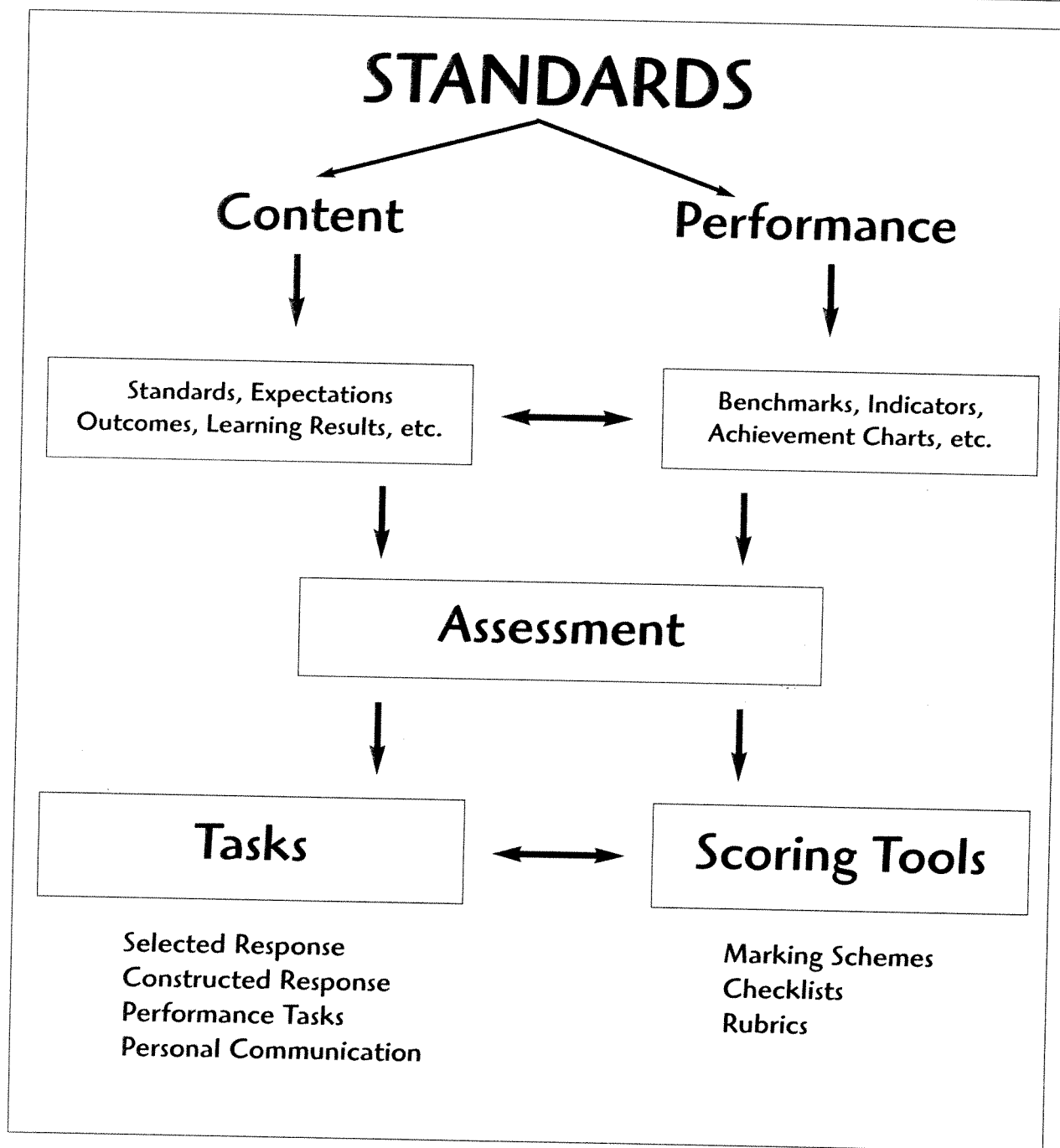
WORLD ECONOMY

The world economy changed dramatically in the 1990s, and the pace of the change has continued into the new century. Globalization has given unprecedented freedom based on comparative advantage to the flow of capital and jobs between countries. For the developed world, the manufacturing sector has declined, and the service, or tertiary sector, which requires higher levels of skill and knowledge, has enjoyed a huge increase. Thus, far fewer jobs are available for those who do not complete high school.

The sorting function of schools—creating categories of those who leave early and find low-skill jobs, those who complete high school, and those who go on to postsecondary education—does not have the value that it did in the past. What schools now have most commonly is the orientation and expectation that students will succeed. Educators consider themselves to be in “the success business,” ensuring that students have real opportunity available to them and that the economy has sufficient skilled and knowledgeable people to continue to function efficiently and effectively. This means that, at least at the school and classroom levels, we have to operate a criterion-referenced system in which the standards are absolute and all can succeed (or fail), *not* a norm-referenced system where standards are relative. The result of a norm-referenced system is a dependable rank order in which a somewhat fixed percentage of students are successful and some students fail regardless of their actual level of performance. Everyone, especially parents, must be helped to understand that in a standards-based, criterion-referenced system, we compare each student’s performance to the “standard,” not to other students or groups of students, and that there is no place for the normal, or bell, curve in twenty-first-century schools.

STANDARDS

The 1990s saw a huge change in how curriculum is determined. By the end of the decade, 49 of 50 American states, most educational jurisdictions in Canada, and many jurisdictions in other parts of the world had developed mandatory standards for curriculum content. (The 50th state—Iowa—approved, what are in effect, state standards in May 2008.) These standards have a variety of titles, including *standards*, *expectations*, *outcomes*, *learning results*, or *learning goals*. They describe, with varying degrees of clarity and specificity, what students are expected to know and be able to do at different stages in K–12 schooling. The distinguishing characteristic of these statements as compared with previous organizers for curriculum content is that the focus is on outputs—what students will know and do—rather than on inputs—the opportunities that will be provided to students and/or what teachers are expected to do. Generally speaking, standards consist of *content standards* at various grade levels—the what—and *performance standards*—descriptions of how good is good enough. These two types of standards should form the basis of both classroom-level and large-scale assessment. The connections are shown in Figure 0.2.

Figure 0.2 Assessment, Evaluation, and Reporting Connections Chart

Schmoker (2000) believes that the “standards movement [is] among the most radical and promising movements in the history of education” (p. 49). Not everyone would give standards such a ringing endorsement, but there is widespread agreement that standards provide a number of benefits:

- Clear focus on what students should know and be able to do
- Common direction for all schools in an educational jurisdiction
- Greater equity in learning goals for all students
- Consistent basis for communication about student achievement to and among stakeholders
- Explicit and external basis for judging the success of teaching and learning

Marzano (2000) notes that the standards movement is not “problem-free.” Standards are criticized as

- “glorified wish-lists” (Popham, 2000a)—there are too many standards, and many are not well written or sufficiently succinct;
- straitjackets for teachers who take the life out of the classroom;
- hoops for students to jump over because “the bar has been raised”; and
- responsible for the explosion of testing at district, state, and national levels.

Reeves (2001) suggests that such criticisms of standards and their use are “a good rationale for the improvement of standards[, but] they are not arguments for the rejection of standards” (p. 6). He suggests that “the adoption of standards retains large amounts of . . . discretion, and individual judgment” (1996/1998, p. 2) but that it is appropriate to have some limits on teachers’ individual freedom in curricular decision making. Another way of putting this is that the standards determine the *what*, but teachers still have great freedom in determining the *hows*.

Undoubtedly, improvements need to be made in standards, such as a review and revision of the content and number of standards in each jurisdiction. But even though there are too many standards, school districts and teachers can prioritize them so that the more important standards receive appropriate emphasis. This has been done by some states and school districts through the identification of “power standards”—the most important standards from the original, overly long lists. Figure 0.3 shows suggestions for possible classifications and rationale for power standards. Standards will be appropriately emphasized when they are seen as the primary focus for classroom assessment rather than for large-scale assessment (Reeves, 2001).

To be effective, standards-based reform will require the previously mentioned improvements in detail or usage, as well as an approach to lesson and unit design that replaces teachers’ absolute individual freedom and the tyranny

Figure 0.3 Prioritizing Standards

Where there are too many standards, prioritize using one of these approaches:

Understanding by Design¹

Enduring understandings
Important to know and do
Worth being familiar with

Popham²

Essential
Very desirable
Desirable

Reeves³ Three Tests

Endurance
Leverage
Required for next level

¹ From Wiggins, G., and J. McTighe. 1998. *Understanding by Design*. Association for Supervision of Curriculum Development, Alexandria, VA. Pg. 15. Used with permission.

² From Popham, W. J. 2000. "Assessing Mastery of Wish-List Content Standards." *NASSP Bulletin*, December, 30-36. Used with permission.

³ From Reeves, D. B. 2001. "Standards Make a Difference: The Influence of Standards on Classroom Assessment." *NASSP Bulletin*, January, 5-12. Used with permission.

of the textbook with a "design-down" or backwards design approach. This involves the following sequence:

1. Selection of the standard(s) as a base for planning
2. Identification of how and how well students will be expected to demonstrate their knowledge and skills
3. Instructional planning that is focused on "how to get them there"; that is, the instructional strategies, topics, theme, and resources that will be used to illuminate the standards

The logic of "design down" suggests a planning sequence for curriculum. This sequence has three stages:

1. Identify desired results.
2. Determine acceptable evidence of achievement.
3. Plan learning experiences and instruction.

It is important to remember that "[achievement] standards can be raised only by changes that are put into effect by teachers and students in classrooms"

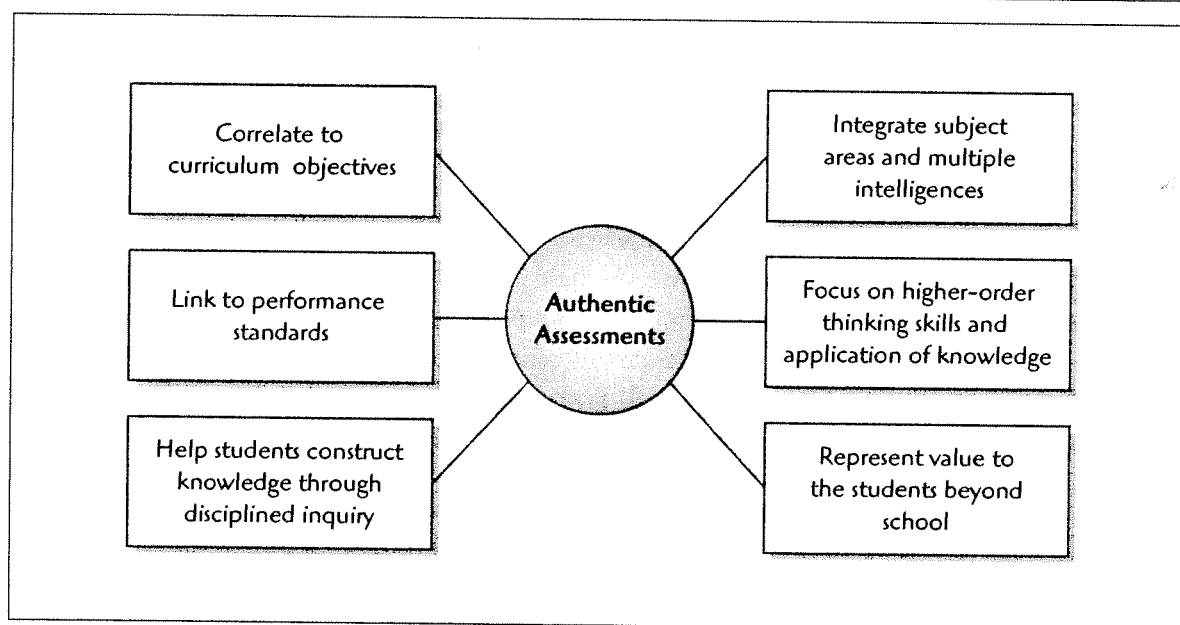
(Black & Wiliam, 1998, p. 148). The move to standards-based systems holds promise, if teachers are assisted appropriately in aligning curriculum instruction, assessment, grading, and reporting. If this alignment occurs, teachers will truly be able to “work smarter, not harder.” It will also be easier for teachers to separate their dual classroom roles of coach/advocate and judge because of the clear focus on publicly articulated learning goals known to all. In this context, it should also be easier for students to see assessment as something that is done *with* them (to improve their learning) rather than something that is done *to* them (to find out what they don’t know). For maximum benefit to be obtained, the purpose for grades and reporting must clearly be the communication of achievement of the standards. “If grading and reporting do not relate grades back to standards, they are giving a mixed message. Our grading practices must reflect and illuminate those standards” (Busick, 2000, p. 73).

HOW DO THESE CONCEPTS AFFECT CLASSROOM ASSESSMENT?

Global economic changes, together with the development of standards and our new understandings about learning, are leading to significant changes in the ways children are taught and the ways in which they are assessed. There has been a move to authentic learning—learning that is relevant to students and to the real world—and to authentic assessment—assessment that provides students with opportunities to demonstrate what they know, can do, and are like. (See Figure 0.4 for a graphic illustration of the characteristics of authentic assessment.) These approaches have moved classroom assessment away from emphasis on paper-and-pencil methods (especially an almost exclusive reliance on multiple-choice questions) toward the use of a broader array of assessment methods with an emphasis on performance assessment.

All of these changes and their impact on schools lead to the conclusion that “the primary. . . purpose of classroom assessment [must now be] to inform learning, not to sort and select or justify a grade” (McTighe & Ferrara, 1995, p. 11).

The focus of traditional grading practices is to sort, select, and justify. Traditional grading practices emphasize the use of scores from assessments that are easy to quantify, such as selected-response items, especially multiple-choice questions. Teachers “become ‘bean counters’ . . . adding up all the marks, bonus points, and minus points before using the calculator to divide by the total number of entries—to the second decimal point, of course” (Burke, 1993, p. 140). This approach was consistent with the competitive mentality prevalent in schools and society. However, as McTighe and Ferrara suggest, this approach is not compatible with the role grading could play, given what is now understood about the nature of

Figure 0.4 Criteria for Authentic Assessment

SOURCE: Adapted from Burke, Fogarty, and Belgrad (2001).

learning and the type(s) of assessment that encourages and supports real learning. It is, therefore, necessary to move away from traditional grading and, as much as possible, use grading in the service of learning. This book provides many suggestions about ways in which grading can be used to inform learning.

Reflecting on . . . Assessment Methods

Use the checklist shown in Figure 0.5 to identify the assessment methods you use in your classroom.

Figure 0.5 Assessment/Evaluation Checklist

TYPES OF STUDENT ASSESSMENT	
Personal Communication	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Instructional questions
<input type="checkbox"/>	Conferences
<input type="checkbox"/>	Questionnaires
<input type="checkbox"/>	Response journals
<input type="checkbox"/>	Learning logs
<input type="checkbox"/>	Oral tests/exams
Performance Assessment (using rubrics, checklists, rating scales, and anecdotal records)	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Written Assignments
<input type="checkbox"/>	Story
<input type="checkbox"/>	Play
<input type="checkbox"/>	Poem
<input type="checkbox"/>	Paragraph(s)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Essay
<input type="checkbox"/>	Research paper
<input type="checkbox"/>	Demonstrations (live or taped)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Role play
<input type="checkbox"/>	Debate
<input type="checkbox"/>	Reading
<input type="checkbox"/>	Recital
<input type="checkbox"/>	Retelling
<input type="checkbox"/>	Cooperative group work
<input type="checkbox"/>	Presentations (live or taped)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Oral
<input type="checkbox"/>	Dance
<input type="checkbox"/>	Visual (photos or video)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Seminars
<input type="checkbox"/>	Projects
<input type="checkbox"/>	Portfolios
Paper-and-Pencil Tests/Quizzes	
<input type="checkbox"/>	True/false
<input type="checkbox"/>	Matching items
<input type="checkbox"/>	Completion items
<input type="checkbox"/>	Short answer
<input type="checkbox"/>	Visual representation
<input type="checkbox"/>	Multiple choice
<input type="checkbox"/>	Essay style